INDUCTION AND RECURSIVE FUNCTIONS

- An inductive proof for a fact P(n), for all $n \ge \alpha$ consists in two steps:
 - Proof of the base case $P(\alpha)$, and
 - The inductive step: assume that P(n-1) is true and show that P(n) is also true.

Example Proof that all the crows have the same colour: For all sets C of crows, $|C| \ge 1$, it holds that all the crows in set C are identical in colour.

- Base case, |C| = 1: immediate.
- For a set of crows C, |C|=n, remove a crow for the set; the remaining (a set of size n-1) have the same colour by inductive assumption. Repeat by removing other crow. The desired property follows.

Note. According to the Webster's Revised Unabridged Dictionary, crow is "A bird, usually black, of the genus Corvus [...]."

INDUCTION AND RECURSIVE FUNCTIONS (CONT'D)

- The same process is used for building recursive functions: One should provide the base case(s) and the recursive definition(s):
 - To write a function $f :: Integer \to Integer$, write the base case (definition for f 0) and the inductive case (use f (n-1) to write a definition for f n).

Example Computing the factorial:

```
* Base case: fact 0 = 1

* Induction step: fact n = n * fact (n-1)
```

- To write a function $f := [a] \to [a]$, use induction over the length of the argument; the base case is f = [a] and the inductive case is f = [a] defined using f = [a].

Example Write a function that concatenates two lists together. We perform induction on the length of the first argument:

```
* Base case: concat [] ys = ys

* Induction step: concat (x:xs) ys = x : concat xs ys
```

• Induction is also an extremely useful tool to prove functions that are already written

EXAMPLE: LISTS AS SETS

• Membership $(x \in A)$:

• Union $(A \cup B)$, intersection $(A \cap B)$, difference $(A \setminus B)$:

• Constructor: no recursion.

makeSet x = [x]

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HIGHER ORDER FUNCTIONS

In Haskell, all objects (including functions) are first class citizens. That is,

- all objects can be named,
- all objects can be members of a list/tuple,
- all objects can be passed as arguments to functions,
- all objects can be returned from functions,
- all objects can be the value of some expression.

TO CURRY OR NOT TO CURRY

curried form:	uncurried form:
compose :: (a->b) -> (c->a) -> c->b	compose :: (a->b, c->a) -> c->b
compose $f g = f.g$	compose (f,g) = f.g

- In Haskell, any function takes one argument and returns one values.
 - What if we need more than one argument?

Uncurried We either present the arguments packed in a tuple, or

Curried We use partial application: we build a function that takes one argument and that return a function which in turn takes one argument and returns another function which in turn...

curried:	uncurried:
<pre>add :: (Num a) => a -> a -> a add x y = x + y equivalent to the explicit version add x = g where g y = x + y</pre>	add :: (Num a) => (a, a) -> a add (x,y) = x + y
incr :: (Num a) => a -> a incr = add 1	incr :: (Num a) => a -> a incr x = add (1,x)

TO CURRY OR NOT TO CURRY (CONT'D)

What if we have a curried function and we want an uncurried one (or the other way around)?

The following two functions are predefined:

```
curry f = g
    where g a b = f (a,b)
uncurry g = f
    where f (a,b) = g a b

or:
```

Note that the two functions are curried themselves...

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curry f a b = f (a,b)
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Note that the two functions are curried themselves...

- Given a nonnegative number x:: Float, write a function mySqrt that computes an approximation of \sqrt{x} with precision $\epsilon = 0.0001$.
 - Newton says that, if y_n is an approximation of \sqrt{x} , then a better approximation is $y_{n+1} = (y_n + x/y_n)/2$.

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mySqrt :: Float -> Float
mySqrt x = sqrt' x
  where sqrt' y = if good y then y else sqrt' (improve y)
      good y = abs (y*y - x) < eps
      improve y = (y + x/y)/2
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- Even closer to procedural programming:

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mySqrt :: Float -> Float
mySqrt x = until done improve x
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until :: (a -> Bool) ->
        (a -> a) -> a -> a
until p f x
    | p x = x
    | True = until p f (f x)
```

ACCUMULATING RESULTS

1.

```
mystery x = aux x []
  where aux [] ret = ret
     aux (x:xs) ret = aux xs (x:ret)
```

1.

```
reverse x = pour x []
  where pour [] ret = ret
      pour (x:xs) ret = pour xs (x:ret)
```

2.

```
reverse [] = []
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

What is the difference between these two implementations?

• map applies a function to each element in a list.

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

• For example:

```
upto m n = if m > n then [] else m: upto (m+1) n
square x = x * x

Prelude> map ((<) 3) [1,2,3,4]
[True,True,False,False]
Prelude> sum (map square (upto 1 10))
385
Prelude>
```

MAPS (CONT'D)

• Intermission: zip and unzip.

```
Prelude> zip [0,1,2,3,4] "hello"
[(0,'h'),(1,'e'),(2,'l'),(3,'l'),(4,'o')]
Prelude> zip [0,1,2,3,4,5,6] "hello"
[(0,'h'),(1,'e'),(2,'l'),(3,'l'),(4,'o')]
Prelude> unzip [(0,'h'),(1,'e'),(2,'l'),(4,'o')]
([0,1,2,4],"helo")
Prelude>
```

• A more complex (and useful) example of map:

```
mystery :: (Ord a) => [a] -> Bool
mystery xs = and (map (uncurry (<=)) (zip xs (tail xs)))</pre>
```

MAPS (CONT'D)

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([0,1,2,4],"helo")
Prelude>
```

• A more complex (and useful) example of map:

```
nondec :: (Ord a) => [a] -> Bool
nondec xs = and (map (uncurry (<=)) (zip xs (tail xs)))</pre>
```

This finds whether the argument list is in nondecreasing order.

FILTERS

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter p [] = []
filter p (x:xs) = if p x then x : filter xs else filter xs
```

• Example:

```
mystery :: [(String,Int)] -> [String]
mystery xs = map fst (filter ( ((<=) 80) . snd ) xs)</pre>
```

FILTERS

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter p [] = []
filter p (x:xs) = if p x then x : filter xs else filter xs
```

• Example:

```
getAs :: [(String,Int)] -> [String]
getAs xs = map fst (filter ( ((<=) 80) . snd ) xs)
Prelude> getAs [("a",70),("b",80),("c",91),("d",79)]
["b","c"]
```

The final grades for some course are kept as a list of pairs (student name, grade).
 Find all the students that got an A.

FOLDS

```
[l_1,l_2,\ldots,l_n] \xrightarrow{foldr} l_1 \bullet (l_2 \bullet (l_3 \bullet (\cdots \bullet (l_n \bullet \operatorname{id}) \cdots))) foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b foldr op id [] = id foldr op id (x:xs) = x 'op' (foldr op id xs) [l_1,l_2,\ldots,l_n] \xrightarrow{foldl} (\cdots (((\operatorname{id} \bullet l_1) \bullet l_2) \bullet l_3) \bullet \cdots \bullet l_n) foldl :: (a -> b -> a) -> a -> [b] -> a foldl op id [] = id foldl op id (x:xs) = foldl op (x 'op' id) xs
```

• Almost all the interesting functions on lists are or can be implemented using foldr or foldl:

```
and = foldr (&&) True concat = foldr (++) [] 

sum = foldr (+) 0 length = foldr oneplus 0 

map f = foldr ((:).f) [] where oneplus x = 1 + n
```

• Examples:

General form:

$$[exp|gen_1, gen_2, \dots, gen_n, guard_1, guard_2, \dots guard_p]$$

Quicksort: